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ABSTRACT

With the increase of violence and aggression affecting more people, this compilation of materials focused on anger and aggression consists of three parts: (1) a general list of articles; (2) an annotated review of selected articles from the general list; and (3) a bibliography of books. The topics range from suggested causes of aggressive behavior to its manifestations and treatment, and are intended to provide helping professionals with resources and research about aggression. (Author/JAC)

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Bibliography on Aggression
by
Dr. John Banmen

Preface

With the increase of violence and aggression in the world affecting more and more people at work, at home and in public places, knowledge of what research has found might be the first step in helping professionals understand the topic of aggression. This project is a result of my literature review of anger and aggression.

The compilation consists of three parts:

1) Part I is a lengthy list of articles and other material on aggression.

2) Part II is an annotated section of selected articles from part I above. Articles annotated are marked with an asterisk (*) in Part I.

3) Part III consists of a bibliography of books on aggression.

Most of the articles are found in research and academic journals. Nevertheless, a substantial number of articles are available from ERIC Document Reproduction Service and are listed as ED 000 000 plus the year of publication.

I hope this publication will encourage and assist others to study the field of aggression by reducing the initial time it usually takes to collect the relevant data.

John Banmen,
February, 1981.

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Acknowledgments

Aggression among inmates is a fairly frequent occurrence. As part of my career in Correctional Services very little assistance was available to me to understand or manage aggression. After I joined the Department of Counselling Psychology, The University of British Columbia, I was encouraged to apply some of my experience and background to relevant research problems. I wish to thank the following scholars and administrators for their encouragement: John Allan, Ph.D., John Braithwaite, Bill Callaway, Catherine Casserly, John Friesen, Ph.D., John Laverock, Victor Loewen, and Roy Landin, Ph.D. Special thanks goes to Dr. M.B. Nevison, Acting Head, Department of Counselling Psychology, The University of British Columbia.

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ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

(1) Allen, R.P. Safer, D., and Covi, L. Effects of Psychostimulants on Aggression. Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease, 1975, 106, 138-145.

A review of the literature on the relation between psychostimulant drugs and aggression leads to the following conclusions: (a) In laboratory animals, small and moderate acute doses of the major stimulants, (i.e. dextroamphetamine), generally either reduce or have no effect on aggression, whereas high doses and chronic moderate to high doses of these drugs increase aggression in most species. (b) In man, aggression is not produced by the Major Federal Drug Administration licensed psychostimulants, except in doses which produce a paranoid psychosis. Such doses are customarily, although not uniformly, high. The drug-intoxicated person's aggression then is characteristically a defensive response to frightening delusions. (c) Children with hyperactivity and aggressive behaviour usually respond to stimulant medication with reduced fighting, defiance, and impulsiveness. The effect of the drug on aggression may be separate from its effect on hyperactivity. (d) Hyperactive, aggressive adolescents respond to stimulants with the same benefits as do hyperactive children. Data on the human response to stimulants suggest a need to better evaluate low dose amphetamine effects on aggression in adolescents and adults. (54 ref.)

(2) Bandura, A. Social learning theory of aggression. Journal of Communication, 1978, 28, 12-29.

Dr. Bandura discusses the multifaceted nature of aggression, how aggressive patterns are developed, what provokes people to behave aggressively, and what sustains such actions after they have been initiated. Dr. Bandura discusses aggression within the framework of social learning theory. He contends that people learn a repertoire of aggressive behaviour through observing the behaviour of others and their subsequent consequences. Children learn aggressive behaviour through adult models, cultural models and media (television) models. According to social learning theory, aversive stimulation (not necessarily frustration), produces a general state of emotional arousal that can facilitate any number of responses. Responses depend on how the source of arousal is cognitively appraised, the modes of response learned for coping with stress and their relative effectiveness. (i.e. status and rewards).

(3) Baron, R.A. The control of human aggression: An incompatible response strategy. Lafayette, Indiana: Purdue University, 1976. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 137 657, 3 p.)

This is a brief report discussing ways of dealing with aggression in individuals. The author feels that previous approaches, such as catharsis or punishment, have proved inadequate, and that a more successful approach to reducing aggression involves the induction of incompatible reactions among aggressors. In the author's opinion, when angry individuals experience empathy toward their victim, feel entertained or amused by them or experience mild sexual arousal, these conditions serve to induce response which are incompatible with aggressive feelings.

(4) Berkowitz, L. Whatever happened to the Frustration-Aggression hypothesis? American Behavioural Scientist, 1978, 21, 691-708.

The Frustration-Aggression Hypothesis advanced in 1939 by Dollard et al states that frustration produce an instigation to aggression. This statement attracted a great deal of attention. A revised version of the Frustration-Aggression Hypothesis notes that pain caused by an aversive event,(dashed hope, personal insult, physical pain), rather than frustration is the primary instigator of aggression. Support for this revised interpretation comes from animal research and preliminary research with human subjects.

(5) Bohn, M.J., Jr. Therapist responses to hostility and dependency as a function of training. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1967 31, 195-198.

Therapist responses to a typical client. A hostile client and a dependent client were studied as a function of the Ss' training. Ss were 18 advanced graduate students in a course in theories and techniques of psychological counseling. The course included didactic material with supervised experience in the form of role playing, structured interviews, and practice counseling. Responses to tape recordings of these clients were obtained before and after the course and were scored for directiveness. Results showed Ss to be increasingly directive to the typical, hostile and dependent clients, respectively, on both administration and showed Ss to be less directive to all 3 clients on

(5) the 2nd administration. The decrease in directiveness to the dependent client, however, was not significant. Implications suggested were that different clients elicit different responses from the same therapist, and that training may affect responses to hostility more than it effects responses to dependency. (17 ref.)

(6) Chase, L.J., & Smith, V.R. A Case Study in conflict management. Sacramento, CA: California State University. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 150 645, 18 p.)

This paper presents a model for a message-centered theory of human conflict based on the assumption that conflict will result from the pairing of any two functional messages that share a common antecedent but contain different consequences with oppositely signed affect. The paper first shows how to represent conflict situations diagrammatically according to the model. It then explains how conflict may be defused by the construction of a third message that effects a change in the original pair, and it describes an eight-step process through which solutions to conflicts may be achieved. A flowchart of the conflict resolution process is included. The final section of the paper shows how the conflict model was applied to a dispute between airmen and senior officers at an air force base, and tells how the eight-step process was applied to arrive at an acceptable resolution to the dispute.

(7) Ellner, M., & Berstein, A. The frustration-aggression hypothesis and depression. Brooklyn, N.Y.: Brooklyn College of the City University of New York, 1973. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 086 912, 19 p.)

Depressed and nondepressed college students were frustrated in an incentive task utilizing a non-reward technique. Matched controls undertook a similar task in which the frustration condition was absent. Subjects were 127 undergraduate psychology students. Pre- and post-test measures of hostility and depression were obtained. The Beck Depression Inventory, the hostility and depression scale of the Tuday form of the multiple affect adjective check list and the digit symbol subtest of the Wechsler adult intelligence scale were used as measures. It was found that frustration increased both depression and hostility in the nondepressed subjects but not in the depressed subjects. The findings suggest that there is a significant positive correlation between depression and hostility.

(8) Epstein, L. The therapeutic function of hate in the counter-transference. Contemporary Psychoanalysis, 1977, 13, 442-461.

Analysts need to acknowledge that patients can induce them to experience hate and anger. The traditional belief that the analyst has to feel ""friendliness, warmth, and respect"" and not hostile emotions is not always beneficial in treating borderline character disorders. Patients who see themselves as worthless tend to depreciate in order to raise their self-esteem. Warmth from the analyst makes these patients feel that they are even more worthless and do not deserve such kindly feelings. Also, the analyst by denying rage becomes so disturbed that he/she is subjectively upset and loses objectivety. By recognizing this anger and hate, the analyst can be honest. By appropriate expression of the anger, the analyst enables the patient to see ego boundaries for him-or herself and the analyst. (15 ref.)

(9) Evans, A.M. A skills approach to negotiating conflict in relationships. Lawrence, Kansas, University of Kansas. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 168 003, 19 p.)

Conflict almost necessarily results from change on the part of one or both participants in a relationship. Four levels at which interaction may lead to conflict are disagreement, misunderstanding, feeling misunderstood, and failure of realization of understanding. Conflict may take place when the issue is directly salient to one partner but only indirectly salient to the other, when both parties are directly involved but the situation is external to the relationship, and when the relationship itself is at issue. Two modes of expression properly used can help conflict be negotiated: the expressor mode, expressing what one is feeling or thinking about an issue, and the empathic mode, allowing the other person to do the same. In the expressor mode, people should own their own perceptions, identify their feelings, state positive aspects of the situation, describe the situation in behavioural terms, and describe desired behaviour. Skills needed in the empathic mode include not asking questions, not presenting a person's own perceptions, not interpreting, not making suggestions, and not making judgments. A person may be a facilitator by teaching the skills of the two modes to others after being trained.

(10) Flynn, W.R., & Stratton, W.E. Dealing with aggressive employee behaviour. Personnel Administrator, 1978, 23, 53-58.

Discusses three theories of aggression (instinctive, learned, and defensive) and outlines techniques for coping with aggression.

(11) Frodi, A. Hostility catharsis revisited. Goteborg Psychological Reports, 1973, 3, 1-12.

The present paper discusses the theoretical models and empirical studies related to the notion of catharsis. The drainage model, popularized by Freud, views aggression as an innate constantly active force striving towards release. The effect of the release was tension reduction giving the person a feeling of satisfaction. Expressions such as "I have to get it out of my system, let off steam, get something off one's chest," indicate how deeply rooted the "drainage model" is in Western Society. The drainage model is severely criticized and remains unsupported by empirical evidence.

Bandura has provided empirical evidence to demonstrate that aggression can be learned. Children will imitate a models aggressive behaviour if the model is rewarded for it. Bandura further postulates that unless an individual concentrates on the thwarting of frustration, his anger will successively diminish. Given no further opportunities of re-arousal that individual ceases to think about the cause of his anger.

(12) Frodi, A. Experiental and psychological responses associated with anger and aggression in women and men. Journal of Research in Personality, 1978, 12, 335-349.

The study raises the question that findings of sex differences in behaviour may be due to differences in response to the provocation, i.e. differential physiological (systolic blood pressure) reaction. It was found that although the physiological responses to provocation were similar for both sexes, there were differences in how men and women coped with the anger. Men tended to preoccupy themselves with thoughts of anger whereas women coped with their anger by preoccupying themselves with nonaggressive thoughts.

(13) Frodi, A. The effects of exposure of aggression-eliciting and aggression-inhibiting stimuli on subsequent aggression. Goteborg Psychological Reports, 1973, 3, 1-16.

Attempted to replicate and extend the L. Berkowitz and A. LePage study on the use of weapons as stimuli to elicit aggression. A pilot study was conducted to find out what possible other stimuli carry aggressive connotations and what possible stimuli might have aggression-inhibiting qualities. 100 male high school students were either angered or not angered by a stooge and then given an opportunity to counter-aggress. For 1 group of SS there were weapons near the shock key and half of these SS were told to handle them. For another group there were aggression-inhibiting stimuli (AIS) present, such as a baby bottle. In other instances there were no stimuli present. Parts of the TAT were administerd to shed some light on the phenomenon of catharsis. SS exposed to weapons gave the largest number of shocks to their partners, whereas the AIS and control groups did not differ. No cathartic effects were found.

(14) Frodi, A. Alternatives to aggressive behaviour for the reducation of hostility. Goteberg Psychological Reports, 1973, 3, 1-13.

Investigated alternatives to the traditional acting out for reducing hostility. 4 groups (N=57) high school students were assigned a creative task and then strongly criticized for their "Poor Performance" (anger condition). An assistant to the E explained the E'S very negative attitude (cognitive restructuring) to 1 group. The 2nd group watched an absorbing but nonaggressive film (absorption), and the 3rd group had an opportunity to counteraggress indirectly ("Acting Out") against the E. For the control group there was no experimental manipulation. A mood questionnaire and parts of the TAT were administered to all groups at the end of the experiment. Results show significant differences between the groups. There was a slight trend toward a reduction of hostility in the cognitive restructuring and film absorption groups. "Acting Out" did not reduce but, rather, enhanced aggression. (28 ref.)

(15) Frodi, A., Macaulay, J., and Thome, P.R. Are women always less aggressive than men? A review of the experimental literature. Psychological Bulletin, 1977, 84, 634-660.

Reviews the experimental literature on adult female and male aggression. Commonly held hypotheses that men are almost always more physically aggressive than women and that women display more indirect or displaced aggression were not supported. Evidence of the type of sex differences that sex role stereotypes would predict seemed to appear only in self-report measures of general hostility or aggresiveness. Factors that are related to observed sex differences include sex of the instigator and/or victim of aggression, empathy with the victim, guilt, and aggression anxiety. When aggression is perceived as justified or prosocial and when these other factors are controlled, women may act as aggressively as men. Some evidence suggests that men and women react differentially to external aggressive cues and provocation. What may be anger-provoking for men may be anxiety-provoking for women. The hypothesis that sex differences in aggression are biologically determined was not examined. The present discussion should be viewed as an attempt to lay the groundwork for an understanding of the phenotypic expression of whatever genetic differences may exist. (5 P Ref.)

(16) Fuller, C., and Kern, R. The effect of hostile clients on the opposite-race counselor. Journal of Non-White Concerns in Personnel and Guidance, 1978, 6, 169-174.

Examined some effects that hostile Black and White clients had on Black and White counselors. Participants were 20 White counselors, 10 of whom interviewed a hostile White student and 10 a hostile Black student. 10 Black counselors then interviewed the same hostile White students and 10 interviewed the same hostile Black students. All students had been trained to act in a hostile manner. Immediately after interviewing each student, counselors were given the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale, the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale, and the Bogardus Social Distance Scale. White counselors were found to be more anxious with hostile Black students. Variables that can affect how well White counselors can work with the Black clients are suggested, and implications for additional research are discussed.

(17) Gaebelein, J.W. Third party instigated aggression as a function of attack pattern and nonaggressive response opinion, Journal of Research in Personality, 1978, Vol. 12, N.3, 274-283, 12, 274-283.

The author compares the aggressiveness of individuals who had a nonaggressive alternative available with those who did not, and assesses the interaction of the presence of the nonaggressive response alternative with the opponent's pattern of attack. Results are discussed in terms of attribution and locus of control.

(18) Geen, R.G. Effects of attack and uncontrollable noise on aggression. Journal of Research In Personality, 1978, 12, 15-29.

The past decade has been marked by mounting public concern over noise as a source of enviornmental pollution. Simultaneously, research has shown that noise is also a potent cause of physiological stress. This research related noise aggression concluding that noise facilitates aggression in subjects who have been instigated to aggress to the degree that noise-produced arousal is missattributed to the instigating stimulus.

(19) Glass, J.F. Prisoner's dilemma: An exercise in intergroup relations. Teaching Sociology, 1978, 5, 275-280.

The prisoners dilemma is a classroom exercise in intergroup relations. Conflict resolution, decision making, trust, and effects of competitive or collaborative behaviour between groups are possible learning outcomes. The title is about two prisoners charged with the same crime, each held incommunicado. If both confess, both can be convicted. If neither confesses, neither can be convicted. But, if one confesses, and the other does not, the first goes free and is rewarded; the second is more seriously punished than if both confess. Should a rational prisoner confess?

This exercise demonstrates that trust is often very hard to build and easy to destroy, inappropriate trust may be as dysfunctional as no trust, and how the situation is defined (i.e. problem solving, competitive or co-operative) affects its outcome.

(20) Goodwin, S.E., and Mahoney, M.J. Modification of aggression through modeling: An experimental probe. Journal of Behaviour Therapy and Experimental Psychiatry, 1975, 6, 200-202.

Asked 4 hyperactive impulsive 6-11 year olds to play a game involving verbal assault. Baseline observations indicated a marked inability to cope with verbal expression. SS subsequently viewed a vidiotape depicting a young boy coping with similar verbal aggression by means of covert coping self-statements. Following coaching and practice in these coping skills, all SS demonstrated marked improvement. Classroom assessments of disruptiveness prior to and following treatment also reflected performance improvement. The interpretation of results is qualified as tentative due to the methodological limitations of the study.

(21) Harris, M.B., & Siebel, C.E. Affect, aggression and altruism. Development Psychology, 1975, 11, 623-627.

Investigated the effects of thinking happy, sad, or angry thoughts on both aggression and altruism in 39 male and 34 female 3rd graders in a 4 *2 design with 3 affect manipulations and a control group. Girls shared more balloons than boys, but there were no treatment differences in altruism. Boys were more aggressive than girls, although the sexes did not differ in the control condition. Instead, boys in all 3 affect conditions were more aggressive than in the control condition, whereas girls in all 3 affect conditions were less aggressive than girls in the control condition. Results are consistent with a view that any kind of emotional arousal may serve to increase a dominant aggressive response in boys and lead to inhibition of aggression in girls.

(22) Harris, M.B., & Fisher, J.L. Success, Failure, and Aggression. Albuquerque, New Mexico: University of New Mexico, 1973. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 102 438, 13 p.)

In order to discover the effects of success and failure on subsequent aggressiveness, 26 male and 55 female college students were randomly assigned to success, failure, and neutral conditions. Those in the success condition were led to feel they were superior to other college students on a task, those in the failure condition were led to feel they were inferior, and those in a neutral condition were given no basis for judgement. After subsequently being insulted by E, SS filled out a questionnaire indicating their opinion of the study, as the dependent

(22) measure of aggression. Rating scale evaluations showed no significant differences, but SS in the failure condition chose "frustrating" and also other unfavorable adjectives to describe the study significantly more than those in the other two conditions. The results supported the prediction that failure would increase aggressiveness but not the hypothesis that the "warm glow of success" would inhibit aggression.

(23) Hollandsworth, J.G., & Cooley, M.L. Provoking anger and gaining compliance with assertive versus aggressive responses. Behaviour Therapy, 1978, 9, 640-646.

The hypothesis that assertive responses provide less anger and elicit more compliance than aggressive responses was investigated by having 40 19-61 yr. old adults respond to audiotaped interpersonal conflict situations. Two of the situations involved confederate statements constructed to conform with 2 models of appropriate assertive content. Two of the situations involved confederate statements constructed so as to be aggressive in nature. One behavioural and 3 self-report measures indicated that assertive responses elicited greater compliance and provoked less anger than aggressive statements. (15 ref.)

(24) Holmes, D.P., & Horan, J.J. Anger induction in assertion training. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1976, 23, 108-111.

Randomly assigned 45 nonassertive female university students (Rathus Assertiveness Schedule) to 1 of 3 individual counseling programs; placebo counseling, standard assertion training, or assertion training incorporating anger induction procedures. The standard method proved superior on a self-report measure, but on 1 of 4 behavioural ratings the anger induction method was most beneficial. (This rating involved the withholding of $4 from Ss' $16 deposit, contrary to agreement.) Low interrelationships among the measures of assertiveness suggest that the "trait" assertiveness may well be situation specific.

(25) Hyde, J.S., Schuck, J.R. The development of sex differences in aggression: A revised model. Bowling Green, Ohio: Bowling Green State University. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 149 199, 15p.)

In response to Maccoby and Jacklin's (1974) conclusion that sex differences in aggression must be biological in origin, we suggest alternative social-learning mechanisms to explain the differences. These mechanisms include: (1) Punishment for aggression increases aggression in boys, particularly because boys do not identify with the punisher: (2) Boys receive sensitization training, while girls receive induction training; (3) Boys receive more rewards for aggression; and (4) Girls receive verbal sex-role training that discourages aggression while boys receive verbal sex-role training that encourages it. These hypotheses were tested with observations of 1,147 aggressive acts of 157 children in nine preschool and kindergarten classrooms. All of the hypotheses received support except the induction hypothesis and the verbal sex-role training hypothesis.

(25) Iannotti, R.J. Effect of role-taking experiences on role taking, empathy, altruism and aggression. Developmental Psychology, 1978, 14, 119-124.

Investigated the effect of 2 types of role-taking experiences on role taking, empathy, altruism, and aggression in 30 6- and 30 9-yr. old boys. In the role-taking condition each S assumed the perspective of 1 character in a story. In the role-switching condition the SS assumed the perspectives of different characters by changing roles approximately every 5 min. The same stories were used in the control condition, but the experimenter did not promote role taking. Although there were no significant differences between the role-taking and role-switching conditions, there was a significant increase in role-taking performance following both training conditions as compared to the control condition. Altruism in 6 year olds was significantly greater following both training conditions, and there was a significant difference in the effect of the 2 training conditions. Role-taking and role-switching conditions did not have a significant effect on either aggressive or empathic behaviours. These results demonstrate the importance of a sociocognitive skill such as role-taking for better understanding of social behaviours and the process by which cognitive and social behaviours ineract. (19 ref.)

(26) Jones, J.A. Teaching leadership strategies for conflict reduction in small groups: A beginning exercise. Chicago, Ill.: University of Illinois, 1974. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 173 880, 9 p.)

A conflict resolution exercise has been developed for use in leadership training in small groups. The objectives of the exercises are to provide a decision-making experience in an enviornment that requires numerous applications of conflict reduction, to enable participants to apply strategies for dealing with specific conflict disruptions that arise in a small group, and to encourage evaluation and discussion of each group leader's adjustive actions in attempting to reduce conflict. Groups of four to six members meet for 30 to 60 minutes and one member, other than the leader, draws a conflict cart to determine his or her role in the discussion of a prepared topic. The conflict card roles represent several typical disruptive types, including excessive talker, mind changer, poor listener, complainer, arguer, power usurper, and ignoramous. Discussion participation continues until the leader has attempted at least one adjustment to the conflicting role player. At that point, the leader stops the discussion of the topic, the role player states the conflict role, the group leader explains his or her attempts to reduce the conflict, and group members evaluate these efforts and make alternative suggestions.

(27) Johnson, M. Influence of counselor gender on reactivity to clients. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1978, 25, 359-365.

Explore the responses of 40 experienced counselors to videotaped clients. Five female and 5 male counselors saw 1 of 4 clients: angry female or male or depressed female or male. During 4 vignette stops, counselors explored their immediate subjective reaction to the clients. Their verbal material was taperecorded and rated by 2 judges on sympathy, identification, defensiveness, and anger. Counselors themselves rated 4 variables: liking, attractiveness for counseling, empathy, and comfort. Multivariate ANOVA produced 2 significant counselor/gender effects. Female counselors rated themselves as more empathic than did males, and females were rated as angrier than were males. Results are discussed in terms of the method developed for the study. (24 ref.)

(28) Joseph, J.M., Kane, T.R., Nacci, P.L., and Tedeschi, J.T. Perceived aggression: A re-evaluation of the Bandura modeling paradigm. Journal of Social Psychology, 1977, 103, 277-289.

Conducted 2 experiments to examine whether naive observers would label as aggressive the destructive behaviour of a child following the latter's observation of an adult model. Exp. 1 provide- descriptions of a standard modeling paradigm to 56 university students. One of 4 sequences was presented in written form; the model and child were both constructive or destructive, the model was destructive and the child was constructive, or vice versa. Results show that imitative destructive behaviour by a child was not perceived as aggressive or bad, whereas the same pattern of play was considered aggressive and bad in the absence of similar behaviour by a model ($P < .03$). Exp. II, conducted with 52 female university students, replicated the design and results of the lst study and accrued information regarding the legitimizing function of the model. Observers attributed responsibility for imitative destructive behaviour to the model and believed the child considered the behaviour as appropriate and likely to produce rewards. The present results question the generalizability of prior findings and the adequacy of the modeling paradigm for the study of aggression.

(29) Kelley, E.A. Principles of conflict resolution. NASSP Bulletin, 1979, 63, 11-17.

The major focus of this article is the identification of principles and strategies to be followed in conflict resolution. The authors contend that a degree of conflict can be extremely productive, provided that people are armed with coping strategies. This article discusses various approaches to dealing with the conflict.

(30) Kilmann, R.H., & Thomas, K.W. Developing a forced-choice measure of conflict-handling behaviour: The "mode" instrument. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1977, 37, 309-325.

Recently, a five category schema for classifying interpersonal conflict-handling modes (competing, collaborating, compromising, avoiding, accommodating), has emerged. The present study presents the developments and initial validation. The "MODE" instrument (Management of Differences Exercise), which attempts to assess the above conflict-handling modes. The mode instrument is internally consistent, with high test retest reliabilities. Preliminary support for the external validity of the instrument has been established.

(31) Lando, H.A., & Donnerstein, E.I. The effects of a model's success or failure on subsequent aggressive behaviour. Journal of Research in Personality, 1978, 12, 225-234.

Previous research has demonstrated that aggressive models can elicit aggressive behaviours from observers. However, research has not assessed the effects of non-aggressive models. Some evidence suggests that non-aggressive models can reduce aggressive behaviour. The present research is concerned with the condition which act to control aggression on the part of the observer. The findings suggest that neither aggressiveness of a model nor success of the modeled behaviour is in itself sufficient to predict observer initiation.

(32) Lefkowitz, M.M., Huesmann, L.R., & Walder, L.O. Environmental variables as predictors of aggressive behaviour. International Journal of Group Tensions, 1973, 3, 30-47.

To study the effects of environmental variables on a child's aggression, 875 3rd graders were studied in 1959 and 1960. 10 yrs. later 427 Ss from this original sample were again studied. It was found that socialization practices, termed "instigators," such as rejection, affected childhood aggression but not the aggression of young adults. Other variables (e.g. role modeling and sociocultural factors) affected the aggression of both children and young adults. There was a significant correlation between peer nomination aggression measures over time (R = .42).

(33) Likert, R., & Likert, J.G. A method for coping with conflict in problem-solving groups. Group and Organization Studies, 1978, 3, 427-434.

Problem-solving methods frequently employed tend to create a win-lose situation among its members, leading to counter-productive feeling of antagonism. In order to circumvent this situation the authors suggest that prior to a decision making session, but after the problem has been stated, groups should list the essential criterion on which the decision should be based. This step decreases the possibility that members will remain emotionally involved with a particular solution. It is believed that this process depersonalizes the problem-solving process and increases the likelihood that the final solution will be win-win and acceptable to all.

(34) London, M., & Howat, G. The relationship between employee commitment and conflict resolution behaviour. Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 1978, 13, 1-14.

This study examines the relationship between the use of alternative conflict resolution strategies and dimensions of supervisor and subordinate job commitment. Individuals were sent questionnaires regarding commitment to the organization, their profession, and community. Responses were correlated with self-report ratings of conflict resolution behaviour. Withdrawing was the conflict resolution strategy most likely to occur while confronting was the strategy most likely to occur for both supervisors and subordinates. Committment to the community was positively related to a compromise strategy of conflict resolution.

(35) Many, M.A., & Many, W.A. What research says about Aggression. Thresholds in Secondary Education, 1977, 3, 6-7.

Defines aggression, discusses two theories regarding aggression in the human being, and the effects of punishment role modeling, and violence on aggressive behaviour.

(35) Metropoulos, N. A socratic view of values clarification within community education. College Student Journal, 1977, 11, 271-276.

This is a description of a model for use in a values clarification program for adult learners. The aim to help adults become familiar with a tool to aid them in clarifying the meaning of conflicting values in life situations.

(36) Milburn, T.W. Some conditions when perceived threats do and do not provoke violent responses. Columbus, Ohio,: Ohio State University, 1974. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 098 462, 22 p.)

This report discusses threats as they serve as stressors in social situations. Extreme threats and other stressors can accummulate to produce behaviour changes: perceived shortened time span, diminished search for alternatives, decreased planning, increased concreteness of thought, simplification of thought process, and diminished attention to events outside the area most threatened. Threats which lack credibility are unlikely to influence behaviour except to invoke some hostility.

(36) Threats work most effectively when the threatened party believes them. Bigger threats inhibit actions more effectively than smaller ones, but threats merely sufficient to do their jobs may produce the largest change of values and attitudes. Ambiguous threats may appear as noncontigent one to their targets, in which case they are provocative. This analysis does not make many assumptions about the targets of threats, for the idea of contingency, especially as perceived by the threat target, seems adequate to explain most of the effects discussed.

(37) Murphy, W.A. and Lamb, D.H., The effects of training in psychotherapy on therapists' responses of client hostility. Journal of Community Psychology, 1973, V.I., #3, 327-330.

These authors demonstrate that the way in which the therapist reacts to expressions of hostility in the client is related to the success of therapy. Furthermore, hostile clients elicit therapist anxiety. It has been found that more anxious therapists are rated as less competent than therapists considered low in anxiety. These authors stress the necessity for training therapists to deal effectively with client hostility.

(38) Murray, J., and Feshback, S. Let's not throw the baby out with the bathwater: The catharsis hypothesis revisited. Journal of Personality, 1978, 46, 462-473.

Asked 48 9-10 year old boys to participate in 1 of 3 experimental activities: movement and aggression, movement devoid of aggression, and minimal movement of a nonaggressive nature. Aggressive fantasy decreased in the aggressive movement and minimal movement groups but increased in the nonaggressive movement group. The results are consistent with a cathartic view of the functional relationship between aggressive behaviour and aggressive fantasy when the effects of movement and completion of an aggressive response are considered. This study supports the notion that the enactment of an aggressive goal response is essential to the occurrence of a cathartic effect.

(39) Nelson, F.L. Aggression and Suicide: A critical evaluation of the suicide prevention ethic. Omega: Journal of Death and Dying, 1978-1979, 9, 167-174.

Both outward and inwardly directed forms of aggression are rooted in low life satisfaction and a negative self-concept. Suicide is viewed as a product of discontent and also an act of aggression against the self. The authors opt for a model of suicide which incorporates both external contingencies and individual personality structure. The authors consider the questions of when suicide is an appropriate form of behaviour and the subsequent adverse effects of society and for the individual attempting to prevent suicide when it is appropriate. It is concluded that for certain individuals suicide may now represent the most appropriate and efficacious solution to chronic conditions of low life satisfaction, maladjustment, and despair.

(40) Noel, N.E., & Lisman, S.A. The effect of learned helplessness on alcohol consumption. Binghamton, N.Y.: State University of New York at Binghamton, 1977. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 147 678, 8 p.)

Widely held cultural beliefs assert that alcohol can offer both an ameliorative and preventive solution to the problem of depression. This study attempted to assess the effects of learned helplessness-- a possible laboratory analog to reactive depression--on alcohol consumption. Thirty-eight female undergraduates were randomly assigned (within drinking category blocks), to one of two conditions. Half were given unsolvable problems (learned helplessness condition) and half were given solvable problems (control). Relative to controls, subjects in the learned helplessness group reported increased depression and hostility. In addition, they drank more beer in a taste-rating task. Finally, although the manipulation was one previously reported in the literature, expected anagram solution deficits were not exhibited by the learned helplessness subjects. This failure, coupled with the findings of increased hostility and depression in the helplessness group, may suggest that a frustration/stress reaction rather than a state of helplessness characterized the subjects.

(41) Paul, S.C., & Thelen, M.H. The reduction of aggressive behaviour: Behavioural strategies and contingency messages. Chicago, Ill.: Midwestern Psychological Association. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 145 335, 14 p.)

College students were instigated by a confederate and then interacted with that same person on a reaction time completion task. The confederate informed half of the treatment subjects of the response strategy he intended to adopt. The other half received an irrelevant message. Subjects in both message conditions then competed against the confederate who employed one of the following five responses consequence strategies: (A) Consistently set a constant, maximum shock across all trials; (B) Consistently set a constant, minimal shock across all trials: (C) Set contingent shocks identical to the subject's response on the preceding trial: (D) Set contingent shocks to settings below the subject's response: or (E) Set contingent shocks two settings below the subject's response. A no-treatment group obtained no message and no consequences, but chose from five available intensities of shocks to deliver to the confederate on those trials on which the confederate's reaction time was slower. The intensities of the subject's shocks were recorded. The strategy which delivered non-contingent-low shocks resulted in the lowest level of retaliation when an irrelevant message was delivered. In the presence of a relevant message, the contingent--match group rendered the least aggressive behaviour. These findings help to clarify previous research and conceptualizations in this area.

(42) Putnam, L.L., Birkmeyer, L., & Jones, T. Communication and conflict in organizations: The state of the art: Lafayette, Indiana: Purdue University, 1979. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 173 872, 36 p.)

During the past 15 years, most studies dealing with communication and conflict in organizational settings have used a bargaining context while integrating assumptions from game theory, information processing, developmental approaches, and systems theory into their research designs. These studies also reflect four communication topic areas, including network and channel communication, control of information, perception of messages, and communication strategies. The studies all integrate conflict communication with co-operation and conflict, such that some communication patterns emerge. Communication

(42) that promotes co-operation is face to face and free of distortion, shows increased availability and information disclosures, provides more concessions and proposals, and contains promises, recommendations, positive language, and open-ended questions. Communication that leads to competition contains inadequate conflict management practices, insufficient exchange of information, threats from low- to high-power participants, incompatible personnel styles and power levels, irrelevant arguments, forcing, withholding, compromising, facial gaze, and close proximity. Since methodological and theoretical deficiencies have hindered meaningful growth in this subject area, a multi-dimensional approach may be warranted in future research. Such an approach would test for interaction effect among such variables as position power, message strategies, and type of conflict situation.

(43) Roark, A.E. Interpersonal conflict management. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1978, 56, 400-402.

Two models are presented to promote the de-escalation and negative effect of conflict and competition. ORIT, Graduated Reciprocation in Tension-reduction provides a method whereby even one party to a conflict can begin to reduce the conflict. The consensus model is designed to reduce problems in communication and perception and to counteract the effect of threat and competition. Both models serve to: (1) clarify communication and perception, (2) de-escalate the intensity of conflict, (3) provide for meeting individual needs, (4) develop norms for constructive interaction, (5) uncover differences and commonalities.

(44) Saul, L.J. A psychoanalytic view of hostility: Its genesis, treatment, and implications for society. Humanitas, 1976, 12, 171-182.

Discusses Freudian views of personal and community hostility. Components of the fight-flight reaction are (a) anger, rage, and hate; and (b) fear and escape tendencies. Repression of hostility leads to psychosomatic symptoms, neuroses, self-injury, psychoses, and sociopathic behaviour. Trauma in preverbal infancy can engender difficulties in verbal expression in therapy. The key to the emotional life is held to be a variety of interpersonal relationships. Hostility would diminish if we raised wanted children with sufficient love, security, and understanding, so that they do not develop into irrational adults who act out hostile feelings.

(45) Scheier, M.F., Buss, A.H., & Buss, D.M. Self-consciousness, self-report of aggressiveness, and aggression. Journal of Research of Personality, 1978, 12, 133-140.

For the last several decades, the insight therapies have taken their basic goal the increased self-awareness and self-knowledge of the client. When attention is focused on one's own thoughts, feelings or behaviours, the person is in a state of self-awareness. The authors distinguish between public self-consciousness, (a focus on onseself as a social object), and private self-consciousness, (focus on more personal and covert aspects of one-self). In brief, self-consciousness theory predicts that the correlation between self-report and behaviour should be low for persons low in private self-consciousness and high for persons high in private self-consciousness.

(46) Slawski, C. Mapping Joint Action. Long Beach, CA.: California State University, 1978. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 167 856, 10 p.)

The flow diagram in this document provide cognitive maps to aid the synthesizing diverse areas of knowledge in a special brand of field theory. A model is presented which highlights the domains of structural functionalism (with concepts of cultural, personal and societal systems) and symbolic interactionism (with the concepts of self, sentiments and role-taking). The paper offers an accounting scheme or extended check list for analyzing problems which can be viewed in terms of some combination of these variables. The basic diagram starts with conflict between two parties, thus emphasizing relationship over individual psychology. It deals with a classic problem of social science--how to handle conflict as a manageable problem, or use it as a stimulus to achieve orderly social change.

(47) Slawski, C. The interpersonal conflict episode: A system model. Long Beach CA.: California State University 1977, (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 156 995, 26 p.)

A detailed systems diagram elaborates the process of dealing with a single conflict episode between two parties or persons. Hypotheses are fully stated to lead the reader through the flow diagram. A concrete example illustrates its use. Detail is provided in an accounting scheme of virtually all possible variables to consider in analysing a conflict episode, and some general guidelines for applying the model are provided. The aim is to advance social scientific theory of conflict as well as to provide counselors and people in conflict

(47) with a neuristic and practical device for understanding it and thus better coping with it.

(48) Steele, C.I. The threat of abuse: Problems in aggression and individuality. Child Welfare, 1979, 58, 319-326.

Drawing from her clinical experience, Dr. Steele discusses the psychosocial consequences to children who are with a constant threat of parental abuse. Dr. Steele notes that although these patients were not actually abused, they remembered repeated occasions when the rage of the caretaking figure seemed to venge on physical attack. The functioning of these patients seemed to reflect a lifelong preoccupation with protecting themselves from aggression consequently, these patients demonstrated to their own children their terror of anger or hostility in any form.

(49) Symonds, M. Psychodynamics of aggression in women. American Journal of Psychoanalysis, 1976, 36, 195-203.

Discusses two basic patterns of aggressive behaviour and related hostile attitudes: (A) Vertical aggression involves the use of direct threats to compel others to obey, and is employed more frequently by men than by women. (B) Horizontal aggression is intended to move others to compliance by making them feel guilty. The latter is seen as rooted in frustrated dependency needs and associated feelings of hurt, anger, fear and helplessness. Both patterns of aggression are illustrated by examples from the author's own clinical practice. It is suggested that contemporary social structures and familial values force many women to adopt dependent roles, and consequently, various forms of horizontal aggressions are employed predominantly by women.

(50) Taylor, S.P., & Gammon, C.B. Effects of type and dose of alcohol on human physical aggression. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1975, 32, 169-175.

40 male undergraduates over 21 years of age were provoked following their ingestion of either 1.5 oz. (.045L) or .5 oz. (.015L) of 100 proof bourbon or vodka per 40 lbs. (18 KG) of body weight. The expression of physical aggression was related to the quantity of alcohol ingested. The high dose of

(50) alcohol appeared to instigate and the low dose to inhibit aggressive responding. This effect was most pronounced in the vodka conditions. Interpersonal judgments were also influenced by the type and dose of alcohol consumed. (19 ref.)

(51) Thoreson, C.E., et al. Processes and procedures in self-control: A working model. Canadian Counselor, 1977, 12, 66-74.

Popular notions of 'acting responsibly' are believed to be derived from some innate strength and character. However, the development of responsible behaviour can be facilitated through a variety of structured training experiences. This article presents a social learning model of self-control, which characterizes self-control as a complex set of teachable and learnable skills. Gaining control over behaviour involves the following procedures: Identifying the problem, Assessing and building commitment, Becoming more aware of behaviour patterns, Developing an action plan, Trying out this plan, and Evaluating how the plan is working. It is believed that by identifying the possible procedures and processes involved in taking action, (which requires sustained effort in the face of conflict and by focusing on the ways certain thoughts, feelings, actions and physical/social environments can influence behaviour), the efforts of interested counselors and researchers can be facilitated.

(52) Webster, S., Di Miceli, A.J. & Reid, E.C. Human aggression in a social motivational context: An integrative approach. Carbondale, Ill.: Southeran Illinois University, 1976. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 138 906, 21 p.)

Aggression is examined in this paper in conjunction with other social motivational behaviours (e.g., altruism, co-operation/competition). Its purpose is to illustrate the usefulness of an integrative approach to aggression research. Such an approach appears to be reasonable and potentially productive, since many of the same independent variables examined by aggression researchers have been studied by workers in the other areas. Most of these variables can be categorized generally as instigators or inhibitors of socially motivated behaviour. This has been the traditional approach for aggression but not for the other forms of social motivation.

(52) This paper includes a review of the major theories of aggression in terms of social motivation. The conclusion is the presentation of a new paradigm which places aggression in a social motivational context. This paradigm centers on the use of extended motive models of measuring social motivation and the concept of social control.

(53) Western Illinois University, Methods and materials for teaching occupational survival skills. Coping with conflict. Macomb, Ill.: Western Illinois University, 1978. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 162 143, 47 p.)

This occupational skills instructional module on coping with conflict is one of twelve making up a curriculum guide on the human aspects of working in organizations. The modules are designed for utilization at various educational levels ranging from high school to adult and continuing education, in either academic or vocational programs. This module is organized into six sessions: (1) what is conflict, (2) conflicts involving personal needs and goals, (3) unfair rules and avoiding responsibility, (4) conflicts resulting from prejudice, (5) conflict over job duties, and (6) preventing conflicts on the job. Each session is arranged according to the following components: topics; objectives; skills emphasized (a listing of specific skills, e.g., working as a team member, working under pressure); notes on the importance of the session topic; list of materials and equipment needed (a copy of each student worksheet, transparency and/or handout is included); activity (description of how to conduct activity); and follow-up (discussion questions or activities to assist students in summarizing or evaluating the session topic). Teacher resources including the titles, sources, and descriptions of books, articles, and audio-visual aids conclude the module. A 16-item multiple choice test for use with this module is available in document CE 018-569.

(54) Worchel, S., Arnold, S.E., & Harrison, W. Aggression and powers restoration: The effects of identifiability and timing on aggressive behaviour. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 1978, 14, 43-52.

Many investigators have focused on the instrumentality of aggression for restoring power or self-esteem. They suggest that threats to an individual's power (ego or self-esteem) may instigate aggression.

(54) Once power has been restored, the instigation to aggress is diminished. Aggression is committed to restore power. It can be predicted that there should be more aggression when the aggressor believes his identity is known than when the aggressor believes he is anonymous or misidentified. If, however, aggression is an expressive response, it should make little difference whether the insulator is aware of the identity of the aggressor or not. The results indicate that power restoration, while it is not the sole cause of aggressive behaviour, nevertheless power restoration may be an important reason why people aggress.

(55) Younger, J.C., & Dobb, A.N. Attribution and aggression: The misattribution of anger, Journal of Research in Personality, 1978, 12, 164-171.

This study sought to demonstrate the effects of the misattribution of anger on subsequent aggression. All S's were given a placebo. In the first condition S's were told the pill would relax them. In the second condition S's were told the pill would arouse them. Half the S's in each condition were provoked by a confederate of the experiment and then given the opportunity to aggress against the confederate. S's in the arousal condition aggressed less against the confederate because they believed their anger was due to the pill, (mis-attribution). Conversely, S's in the relaxation-pill condition aggressed more believing thier anger was due to the provocation of the confederate.

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